

The Alberta Journal of Educational Research

Vol. VIII, No. 2

June, 1962



THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Faculty of Education

University of Alberta

THE LEGAL STATUS OF THE CANADIAN PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD

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Introduction

Practice in school administration must give some attention to the law as it relates to administrative agencies, their organization, their authority and their duties. However carefully planned or desirable administrative procedures may be, they cannot be legally implemented unless they fall within the jurisdiction of the agency proposing them. Many aspects of school operation and maintenance have legal implications which must be heeded. Any study of the school as an institution, therefore, should not neglect to take into consideration the legal framework within which the school exists and within which it is administered.

In Canadian education the *ad hoc* school board is widely accepted as the proper agency for administering schools in the local district. The board's powers and duties are broadly set out in the respective School Acts of provincial legislatures. However, while statutes establish with some completeness the framework within which a school board functions, they do not define in detail all its operational procedures. The latter are often largely determined by court decisions. When legislatures grant broad discretionary powers to school boards, or when statutory provisions are vague or even contradictory, the interpretation of the law given by the courts can serve as a useful guide to school boards and to administrators.

Sources of Legal Authority in Canadian Education

It is generally well understood that Section 93 of the B.N.A. Act assigns to provincial legislatures the exclusive right to make laws in relation to education. This assignment does not prescribe, however, the kind of educational services which legislatures may provide. Exercising their discretion in this matter, legislatures have created both central authorities and local authorities, and have assigned distinct, though not always discrete, functions to both. Each type of authority exercises its powers and discharges its duties through rules and regulations, which, as long as they are within the jurisdiction assigned, have the full force of law. However, the courts may be called upon from time to time to clarify the jurisdiction of the bodies involved and to rule on whether or not a particular action taken is within the powers granted.

The courts, operating as they do on the principle of legal precedent, have accumulated a body of legal decision and opinion

known as the case law. For full knowledge of legal relations and authority in school matters, it is therefore necessary to read case law in connection with statute law and constitutional law. Case law, however, has not been collected and systematized as has statute law. Rather, it is spread throughout the law reports from whence it must be searched out, brought together and interpreted.

Purpose of the Study

To search out and present in layman's terms the case law as it relates to the public school board was the main purpose of the study reported here.¹ Thus the investigation revolved around such questions as:

- (1) How have the courts defined the legal status of the public school board?
- (2) What are the board's powers? From whence are they derived? How are they exercised?
- (3) What are the board's obligations and how does the board meet these obligations?
- (4) What are the board's legal relations to other bodies of government, notably municipal and provincial governments?

It was not intended that this investigation should be a complete legal treatise on the status of the school board, but rather a summary and study of the decisions of the courts so that these could be used by school people in conjunction with the statutes.

Research Design and Procedures

A study which concerns itself primarily with questions of law clearly falls into the category of documentary research. Hence its prime value lies not so much in producing new knowledge, as in bringing together, comparing and interpreting a large amount of material presently scattered and unsystematized. The raw materials of such a study already exist. The data are predetermined, but the conclusions sought are probably no more predetermined than they are in any other form of research, for the comprehensiveness of the study, the penetration of the analysis and the logical procedures employed, are similar to those of all types of research.

A legal study in education presents a number of unique problems and difficulties. First, Canada has ten different provincial educational systems and although there are similarities in the controlling legal provisions, there are also significant differences. Furthermore, provincial school statutes are not static pieces of legislation.

¹F. Enns, *The Legal Status of the Canadian Public School Board*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Alberta, 1961.

Instead, legislatures undertake more or less extensive revisions annually. The lack of consolidation of such amendments makes it difficult to know what the law is at any one time.

Secondly, there are also ten different provincial legal systems in Canada. Thus, although the ruling of a superior court in one province establishes a binding precedent for lower courts in that province, courts in other provinces are free to follow the decision or not, as they see fit.

Combining these two difficulties—ten different educational systems and ten different legal systems—makes generalization regarding school law extremely hazardous. Some generalization, however, is possible. When statutory provisions are similar from province to province, courts follow similar patterns of interpretation and decision in disputes involving these provisions. Furthermore, when a dispute goes to the Supreme Court of Canada (to the Privy Council in earlier times), the decision has binding force on all other Canadian courts. Generalization is also possible when application of the common law is involved, for this law applies with equal force in all common law provinces of Canada.

The researcher in school law, as in other fields of documentary research, is faced with the task of locating first of all his primary sources and secondly of bringing order to masses of seemingly unrelated data. He must search through the statutes and their amendments to find the statute law as it relates to schools. He must also search through the reports of legal cases, a task of no small magnitude. In addition, he must become acquainted with the vocabulary peculiar to law.

Such a researcher has at his disposal, however, a number of valuable tools. Statutes, though extensive, are collected and indexed in a good law library. Cases, though reported in a number of publications, are also indexed. Digests of cases, together with citations directing the reader to the primary sources, are published in topical arrangement in such works as *The Canadian Abridgement*. Other legal works such as *The Canadian Encyclopaedic Digest*, and *Halsbury's Laws of England* give further citations directing the reader to original sources. In addition, previous studies—in Canadian school law those of Bargaen,² Lamb,³ and Ross⁴—direct attention to other cases which the investigator may consult. Finally, the report of the judgement itself indicates additional cases which were cited as precedents or which were used in the legal argument,

²P. F. Bargaen, *The Legal Status of the Canadian Public School Pupil*. Toronto: Macmillan Book Co. of Canada, 1961.

³R. L. Lamb, *The Legal Liability of School Boards and Teachers for Accidents in the Schools*. Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Toronto, 1957.

⁴G. J. Ross, *The Courts and the Canadian Schools*. Microfilmed Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1948.

and these too can be investigated. Legal dictionaries offer the investigator excellent aid in understanding technical terminology.

Using these aids, it is possible for the researcher to prepare a relatively complete file of case reports on any topic which he is investigating. He can, of course, refer to statutes whenever necessary.

The report of a case may be brief or lengthy depending on the importance of the issue under consideration, the complexity of the legal provisions being applied, and the degree to which the case falls within an existing precedent. The report usually contains a statement of the issues involved, and of the statutory provisions on which the case is based. In addition to a review of the material facts involved and the legal argument developed, the report gives the decision of the court. When there is more than one judge, each may give an individual opinion, or there may be a majority opinion and one or more dissenting opinions. Often one judge speaks for the whole court. The report also indicates the eminence of the court, thereby establishing the weight or force of the judgment handed down.

In his investigation, therefore, the researcher must study the facts of the case, their interpretation by the court, and the judgment rendered. Then he must check the statutory provisions involved to determine whether or not they still apply or have been amended since the trial of the case. If he wishes to generalize the legal principle to other provinces, he must also determine whether similar statutory provisions exist there. Finally, he must examine the educational and administrative implications of a particular interpretation of a statute or the application of a particular precedent or principle of law.

Procedure in this Study

The study reported here was conducted under the previously outlined conditions. The investigator examined *The Canadian Abridgement*, the *Canadian Encyclopaedic Digest* and previously completed studies to compile a preliminary file of cases involving Canadian public school boards. These cases were then classified topically to be used in the development of the legal principles reported in the dissertation. Reading of the law reports themselves provided additional sources of case titles which were added to the file. Since a case often deals with more than one legal point, it was also necessary to cross-index the preliminary materials.

The actual reporting of cases in the thesis consisted of a synoptic presentation of the main facts of a case, abstraction and statement of the legal principles inherent in the judgment, comparison and

contrast with other cases dealing with similar topics in other places and at other times, and finally, discussion of the implications for school board operations.

Because the range of school board activities is very broad, it was necessary to delimit the investigation rather sharply. Hence, only cases involving public school boards were dealt with. Separate school boards, and litigation in which they had been involved, were omitted for the most part, though it was recognized that legal principles derived from litigation involving separate school boards could be as applicable to public school boards as those derived from litigation involving public school boards are applicable to separate school boards. Further, all cases dealing primarily with school teachers or pupils were omitted from the study, even though many of them also involved school boards. The former could well form the basis of another study; the latter have already been studied.⁵ Nor were the provisions of all existing statutes governing school boards considered extensively, the purpose of the study being rather to study litigation. In terms of school board functions, therefore, the study is neither exhaustive, nor complete, since not all aspects of school board functions have been before the courts.

Scope of the Study

The study opens with a brief investigation into the nature of law and the functions of the courts. It then examines the following aspects of the existence, operation and legal status of public school boards in all the provinces of Canada:

- (1) The corporate status of a school board;
- (2) Legal relations between school boards and municipal councils, particularly with regard to fiscal matters;
- (3) Matters relating to school finance;
- (4) A board's powers and obligations in relation to school children;
- (5) A board's powers, obligations and liabilities regarding pupil transportation;
- (6) Statutory provisions and case law in relation to school premises;
- (7) School Board contracts and the contractual liability of school boards;
- (8) The legal liability of school trustees both as a corporate body and as individuals.

⁵P. F. Barga, *Loc. Cit.*

Major Findings of the Study

The courts have stated in the clearest of terms that the primary concern of the school board must be the education of children. Indeed, this concern is the only reason for the board's existence, for the duties imposed upon it and for the powers granted to it.

By constitution, exclusive right to make laws in relation to education is granted to provincial legislatures. These bodies, therefore, are held ultimately responsible for the educational services offered in their respective provinces. Nevertheless, every provincial legislature has chosen to delegate some of its authority to school boards.

Because a school board receives its power from the legislature, and because it has obligations imposed on it by that body, it is in large part an agency of the legislature in the local community. Only in those aspects of school administration in which the legislature has granted discretion to the board does the latter represent the local electorate. In other words, the school board is a single-purpose agency concerned primarily with implementing the educational policies of the legislature as laid down in school law, and only to a limited extent with implementing the wishes of the community. When local aspirations conflict with the policies of the legislature, the board has no alternative but to observe the provisions of the statutes. This is not to say, of course, that school boards may not press vigorously for modification of their powers and duties to bring them into congruence with local wishes; but until such modifications are actually made, the board is powerless to deviate from the statutory provisions governing it.

The fact that a school board may exercise governmental functions only, prohibits it from engaging in proprietary activities. In this respect it does not have the powers of a municipal corporation. Therefore, a school board may own property, or deal with its property, or engage in business affairs only to the extent that these activities contribute directly to its governmental function of operating schools. The board may not operate utilities or services, or make investments with a view to using the proceeds to defray school costs. However desirable such procedures may be for private business, or for municipal governments, they are not permitted to school boards. Rather, the board must depend for its revenues upon sources clearly stipulated in the appropriate legislation.

Corporate Status of the Board

To carry out its delegated functions the school board has been granted corporate status. In effect this is one of the most significant aspects of the board's legal status, for it places the board within the

purview of corporation law. Its corporate existence controls its methods of operation, the extent of its powers, and its liabilities. In essence, this means that a school board may act only as a corporate body duly assembled and following the procedures either laid down by statute or embodied in the case law relating to corporations. The corporate body is distinct from its members, though the members act for it. Membership in the corporation may change from time to time, but the corporation has perpetual succession, and its business, including its liabilities, carries on even when it has a completely new membership.

Corporate powers are controlled by the statute which creates the corporation, and only those powers may be exercised which are expressly granted or which are implied by the nature of the obligation imposed. Furthermore, when liability attaches, it does so to the corporate body and not to the individual members themselves. However, by taking action beyond the powers of the corporation, members may remove themselves from corporate protection and thereby become individually liable. They do so when they act criminally, in bad faith, or with malice.

School Board-Municipal Council Relations.

School Boards and municipal councils are both agencies of local government. They have different functions and responsibilities, but because they operate within the same geographic area and perform related functions, their respective jurisdictions are not always clearly distinguishable. Then relations between the two may become the subject of dispute before the courts. Since both school and municipal corporations are creatures of the legislature, the basic relations between them are set forth in the statutes. In disputes between them the courts have held that since each has been granted discrete powers and responsibilities, neither is subject to the other. Each is supreme within its own jurisdiction.

This has been held to mean that the municipal council has no authority to interfere in the affairs of the school board. Nor, conversely, has the school board any right to interfere in the affairs of the municipality. Each is responsible to its own constituents only (and to the legislature). Their respective constituencies, though overlapping, are not necessarily identical, and therefore the municipal council, when acting for its ratepayers, is not necessarily acting for the school board's ratepayers. This is particularly true in areas where there are both public and separate school boards.

The chief area of friction between school boards and municipal councils is in the matter of the school board's requisition for funds and the municipal council's obligation to collect and pay over the

necessary taxes. Councils have often held that since they collect the money, they should control its spending. The courts, on the other hand, point out that the council's designation as a collection agency is merely a means whereby the legislature intended to eliminate inconvenience, confusion and the added expense to rate-payers of maintaining tax-collecting machinery by both municipal and school authorities.

Legislation in some provinces, as in Ontario, requires municipal councils to scrutinize school estimates to insure that proposed expenditures are *intra vires* the board. If they are within the board's powers, council has no discretion and must collect the necessary taxes. In other provinces, as in Alberta, municipal councils may appeal requisitions, which they consider excessive, to an outside authority such as the Local Authorities Board, which may arbitrarily reduce the school board's estimates.

Such a reduction can place a school board in an untenable position. By statute a school board is required to provide school accommodation and instructional facilities and services which require the expenditure of sizable funds. By provincial government regulations such as those having to do with the curriculum, further expenditures are necessary. In addition, trustees attempting to meet special local educational aspirations, find still further expenditures called for. No school board can escape such obligations nor can its discharge them partially or imperfectly without risking public censure or even legal action. Yet, external agencies with no legal obligation or responsibility for education, are granted authority by statute to reduce school board requisitions. Such reductions are particularly indefensible when made late in the fiscal year, after a school board has made its commitments and has expended a large portion of its budgetted estimates. The basic cause of this situation is the incompatibility of certain provincial statutes, an incompatibility which should be resolved.

Other Aspects of School Finance

The courts have held that a municipal council can impose and collect an educational tax levy only upon the authorization provided by a school board's proper requisition. Such a principle of law points up the need for submission of school requisitions in proper form and at the time required by statute. It has been held in some provinces, that unless school requisitions are properly submitted, the board cannot demand payment.

When a council has paid the board's requisition, it has met its entire obligation. It follows that boards may not submit a partial requisition, nor more than one requisition in one year, unless the

legislation provides for such action. Nor may a board which has received full payment of its requisition participate in financial benefits accruing to the municipality in the form of tax arrears or grants in lieu of taxes on the property of a senior government.

School borrowing, as well as other aspects of school finance, is controlled by statute. It has been repeatedly held by the courts that such borrowing must be done by following the provisions of the statute. Proper authorization must be sought and obtained. An attempt to circumvent the statutory procedures in regard to borrowing, by adding sums to current requisitions, is considered to be an act of bad faith and as such is severely censured by the courts.

Since the school board is a corporation, with borrowing powers clearly laid out by legislation, anyone who lends to the board must make sure that the proposed borrowing is within the board's powers. If it is not, the lender may be without remedy, for the corporation cannot be held liable for borrowing in excess of its powers. One exception to this rule, however, does exist. If the money borrowed is used to pay legitimate debts of the corporation, the lender may recover to the extent that his money was so used. The courts hold that in this case, since the borrowing has not resulted in increasing the corporation's liabilities, there has been merely an exchange of creditors.

When, under some circumstances, municipal corporations attempt to attract business or industry by making tax concessions or fixed assessment agreements, school finances may be indirectly affected. Such business or industry, attracting new workers and their families, may necessitate the provision of educational facilities costing more than the additional tax revenue returned to the community by the business or industry. In such a case, other ratepayers are required to pay higher school taxes than they otherwise would. In effect, this means an increase in school taxes, not by action of the elected school board, but by action of the municipal council. To whom, and to what extent the school ratepayer has recourse under such circumstances is not clear and represents a further example of school legislation requiring clarification. The question has not been before the courts and the statutes make no reference to it.

The School Board in Relation to Pupils

As has already been stated, the prime justification for the school board's existence is the need for educating children. It is firmly established that children have a statutory right to education. This being so, an obligation is cast on the authorities to provide for the realization of this right. School boards therefore have the duty to provide educational facilities for all children who have been granted

the right. They must provide buildings, instructional personnel, transportation where necessary, and other instructional materials and equipment required for conducting the educational program. School boards do not have discretion in whether to provide facilities or not. They must provide them, and may be forced by legal action to do so. Nor may boards discriminate against any children by providing facilities or transportation for some and not for others. Boards may, of course, make alternative arrangements by providing educational services indirectly. They may, for example, make boarding arrangements or pay tuition in another school system.

The child's right to education, however, and therefore the board's obligation to provide educational facilities, is not absolute. A child may be excluded from school for conduct which is unacceptable in the school environment. Thus, damaging school property, or other serious misdemeanor, may be conduct through which a child forfeits his right. Furthermore, depending on the provisions of the prevailing statutes, a child may also be excluded for refusal to obey health laws such as those requiring immunization, or for refusal to participate in patriotic and other school exercises. However, a board which deprives a pupil of his statutory right, may do so only by following precisely the provisions laid down, for the courts construe such provisions strictly.

Even though a school board finds that restrictive legislation prevents it from carrying out its statutory obligations, this does not permit it to operate in an unauthorized manner.⁶ The board may not, for example, make agreements for additional finances which are not sanctioned by the statutes. Nor may it close some or all of its schools in order to save money. The courts hold that the board cannot escape its obligation to educate all the children under its jurisdiction. If a board cannot discharge this obligation, its only recourse is to resign, thereby shifting its responsibility back to the legislature whence it came and where, by constitution, the ultimate responsibility for education rests. School boards may, of course, press for amendments of restricting legislation on the grounds that it is unreasonable for a legislature to impose obligations on the one hand and to grant less than the necessary power to discharge the obligations on the other.

School Transportation

The enlargement of school attendance areas and the resulting removal of school facilities from close proximity to pupils' homes cast a further obligation on school authorities. The child's right to education remains the same as before. His obligation and that of

⁶*McLeod v. Salmon Arm School Trustees*. 4 W.W.R. 385, (1952) 2 D.L.R. 562.

his parents or guardians is unchanged. Therefore, the right of the authorities to centralize school facilities obligates them to provide transportation. The courts hold that pupil conveyance must be conducted in good faith, without discrimination, in the public interest, and according to the provisions of the statutes. Within these limits, however, a school board may exercise discretion. It may draw up and change bus routes. It may also make agreements with parents or guardians to board pupils near school or to pay tuition in another school in lieu of transportation.

Since pupil conveyance adds a risk of injury to children travelling to and from school, the board must exercise its power to convey with due care. If it exercises its powers negligently, it may be liable in damages for injuries which are sustained. Where the duty to convey pupils is statutory, the board cannot escape liability for negligence in case of accident or injury, even though the duty has been assigned to an independent contractor. When the power is discretionary, the board may escape liability by employing an independent contractor. In either case, if the board carries out its powers by employing a servant, it is liable for the servant's negligent acts.

School Premises

Provision of school premises is, of course, necessary for the discharge of the board's obligation to provide school accommodation. Procedures for the acquisition or change of a school site are controlled by statute and vary from province to province. In some provinces procedures are extremely complex, requiring consent of ratepayers' meeting and/or of municipal councils, and providing for arbitration procedures in case of dispute over choice of site. In other provinces procedures are as simple as having the board select a site and getting the approval of the Minister. In general, it is true that the more complex the required procedure, the more frequently dispute resulting in litigation arises. It is also true that disputes over choice or change of school sites is no longer as common as it once was. The explanation may well be that with present centralization of schools, and the provision of school conveyance, the location of the school house is no longer as critical as it was in earlier times. It may also be that the school is no longer the community centre it once was, and therefore people are less intimately concerned with its location.

The matter of compulsory acquisition of school sites, particularly in urban areas, remains a question of active concern. School boards have the right to expropriate lands for school purposes. However, since such expropriation denies the owner the right to dispose of

his property as he wishes, or otherwise restricts his rights in regard to his property, the courts construe expropriation provisions strictly. It has been held that a board may enter upon expropriated lands immediately upon filing its caveat, even though the determination of the value of the lands may not be completed for some time. It has also been held that a board may not expropriate the lands of another public authority which also has the powers of compulsory acquisition.

Upon occasion the courts have held that a school board is not subject to building restrictions in force in a community. Because the board has the right to acquire land in any part of the city, it is held to have the right to build any type of school on such land, as long as the building meets the regulations of the central education authority for the province. This right does not, however, give a board general immunity from municipal by-laws.

Boards sometimes find it necessary to provide temporary school accommodation, and they often rent community or church facilities. The expenditure of money in doing so has been held to be proper, and in renting church premises, has not been considered as public support of a denominational group.

School Board Contracts

Because the school board is a corporation, it conducts many of its affairs by contracting with other individuals, but it can exercise its contractual powers only as a corporate body. That is to say, it can come to a formal agreement only at a duly constituted meeting of the corporate body and only by following the proper procedures in conducting such a meeting. Proper notice of meeting must have been given, or failing that, unanimous and formal waiver of notice must be granted. If proper procedures are not followed, the contract is not legally enforceable, for at law, the corporation has not obligated itself. Acts of individual members are not the acts of the corporation and such acts do not bind the corporation.

The school board may, of course, enter only into those types of contracts which are specifically or impliedly authorized by statute. In general, contracts necessary for carrying out governmental functions are permissible, but those involving a purely proprietary function are prohibited. In addition, it has been established that a board may not contract an obligation beyond the limit of finances which have been approved. This restriction is especially applicable in constructing or remodelling school buildings. A board which has received the approval of the ratepayers for construction to cost a given amount cannot then proceed legally with a project costing in excess of that amount. Nor may it engage architects to draw detail-

ed plans and specifications before the financing of the project has been authorized. The courts have ruled that an architect may be engaged to draw up preliminary sketches and to make preliminary estimates to guide the board and ratepayers in estimating actual costs of a building. But the board may not go beyond this until the plan is approved as required by statute.

When a school board has contracted a legal obligation in a regular manner, it is the board, and not the individual trustee, which is liable in contract. The other party to the contract must look to the corporation for satisfaction. Because it has perpetual succession, the board remains obligated even though its membership, its name, and even its territorial limits may have changed. Even the dissolution of a board as a corporation does not nullify its liabilities, and the statutes may well provide for the legal assumption and discharge of the liabilities by the board's corporate successor.

Legal Liability of School Trustees

As has been stated, primary legal liability attaches to the school board as a corporation. However, individual trustees may become personally liable if they act in bad faith, in a discriminatory or malicious manner, or if they violate the clear provisions of the statutes. A few specific examples of such acts are wrongfully excluding a child from school, illegally contracting with the board of which they are members, employing unqualified teachers, maliciously refusing to transport a child entitled to transportation or illegally entering upon school property. For such offenses trustees may be held personally liable and subject to the penalties provided by the statutes or by the common law. Further, if the statute requires trustees to take proper security from the secretary-treasurer and they refuse or neglect to do so, they become personally liable for loss of school funds in the event of the secretary-treasurer's defalcation. However, trustees are subject only to the penalties provided for a particular offense and when a statute provides a specific penalty for a specific offense, they may not be punished in other ways.

In spite of the possibility of personal liability, trustees should not hesitate to exercise their proper powers with confidence, vigor and decisiveness. Courts recognize the exposed position occupied by public officers, and are reluctant to find against them personally except on the clearest of evidence. Time after time they have pointed out that trustees have every right to exercise their powers to the limited granted them by law. Furthermore, school boards and individual trustees come clearly within the provisions of the *Public Authorities Protection Acts* of the various provinces.

Some Implications for Administrators

As implied in the introductory paragraphs of this paper, school administrators should be legally literate. One way to gain a measure of competence in legal matters is to study school legislation. Such a study alone, however, is not sufficient. A study of court decisions is also necessary because it illuminates and gives insight into the application and operation of the law in practice.

Quality in administration is determined in no small measure by the conceptual skills of the administrator. A study of school law can add much to these conceptual skills. In the purely practical realm, knowledge of law can save school boards money and inconvenience. Court costs and damages are frequently the penalties paid for ignorance of the statutes, or of the provisions of the common law; and irksome delays often result from improperly complying with the statutes.

It should be added, of course, that administrators should be concerned with more than the legality of an action. The mere legality of an act is no assurance that it is necessarily in the best interests of the schools or the community. An action which, though legal, may do damage to the cause of education or to the best interests of children, might better be left undone.

By being more conversant with statutory law and its interpretation by the courts, administrators can advise their boards more effectively. It is only through such effective advice, and vigorous administration that boards can hope to cope with the complexities of their tasks in the future. One might conjecture that only such a high quality of school administration will insure the continued existence of local, fiscally independent school boards.

F. W. G. HAULTAIN: EDUCATIONAL STATESMAN OF THE CANADIAN WEST

R. S. PATTERSON

Faculty of Education

Introduction

Frederick William Gordon Haultain made numerous contributions to the growth and development of Western Canada during his career of public service. Most noteworthy of these contributions was his undaunted persistence in seeking firstly, responsible government and secondly, provincial status for the North-West Territories. As the accepted leader of the Territorial Assembly from 1888 to 1905,¹ he worked toward the successful completion of these goals. In 1905, as a result of his political defeat at the hands of Walter Scott and the Liberals, Haultain became the leader of the opposition in the Saskatchewan Legislative Assembly. In this position his opinion was highly respected by the government and his viewpoint often found its way into proposed legislation.

Even though Haultain had given twenty-four years of his life to the development of political institutions on the Prairies, he was only fifty-four in 1912 when he retired from the Saskatchewan Legislature to accept the responsibility of Chief Justice of the Saskatchewan Supreme Court. He served in this capacity until 1938 when he left the West to retire in Montreal. During his tenure as Chief Justice, he served as a member of the Senate and as Chancellor of the University of Saskatchewan.

A review of Haultain's career shows that educational policy was one of his first concerns and greatly affected his future. He was intensely interested in establishing what he regarded as the best educational system for the Territories. In his position of political leadership in the Territories, he was able to secure enactment of many of his ideas on education, thus providing a statutory framework for some of his most outstanding contributions to education.

Establishment of Public, Non-Sectarian Education

The outstanding characteristic of educational development during the period 1884-1905 in the North-West Territories was the trend toward a public, non-sectarian school system. Haultain gave his full support to this development. It was his opinion that the people of the West should present a united front in their request for responsible government and provincial status. He regarded such

¹Between 1890 and 1892 Haultain was twice replaced as chief executive in the Territorial Assembly, first by Dr. Brett of Red Deer and later by Mr. Cayley of Calgary.

things as provincial party politics and separate schools as divisive forces and hence undesirable elements in the West. As early as 1891 Haultain expressed his opinion on separate schools to his constituents at Pincher Creek, reported as follows:

We now have two systems. Under our present constitution a Protestant or Roman Catholic minority have the right to establish separate schools. He (Haultain) was thoroughly opposed to such a system. He did not wish to interfere with religious belief, but religious training was not necessary in the school. We did not need to introduce religious teaching. We got that at home, at the churches and in the Sunday Schools. There was no reason why Protestants should not go to school with Catholics. His position with regard to the separate school question was that he would work and vote against it as hard as possible.²

As indicated in Haultain's remarks, the earliest provisions for education in the Territories established dual control over the schools. The first effective school legislation in 1885 empowered the Lieutenant-Governor to appoint a Board of Education comprised of two sections, Catholic and Protestant. The Board as a whole was to exercise general control over the school system, while each religious section governed schools of its faith through control over general regulations, books and equipment, programs of study, conditions of teacher certification and appointment of inspectors. This prerogative of the religious minorities gradually disappeared as the Territories, primarily under Haultain's direction, moved towards a non-denominational school system.

School Ordinance of 1892

The school ordinance that abolished the dual control of the Board of Education and that stands out as the most important measure taken towards "national" schools was passed in December 1892. Twice previously this bill had been introduced into the Assembly by Mr. D. Mowat, and withdrawn for further consideration. To the surprise of many, Haultain reintroduced certain parts of Mowat's bill in the session of 1891-92 after having requested its withdrawal for further consideration. The controversial nature of the original bill led Haultain to move cautiously. He realized that the bill, when passed, would provoke protests from the Catholics who would view it as an attempt to deprive them of their control over their schools. Thus by introducing it in piecemeal form, he sought to lessen the opposition. The changes proposed by Haultain in his bill affected inspection, teacher certification and textbooks. The legislation provided for appointment of inspectors by the Lieutenant-Governor rather than by the sections of the Board of Education; and the appointment of a general board of examiners for teachers' certificates and a uniform system of textbooks.

²*The Macleod Gazette*, February 5, 1891.

In the next session, late in 1892, the passage of Mr. Mowat's bill placed all publicly supported schools under secular control rather than under religious control. A council of Public Instruction made up of the Executive Committee and four other members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council replaced the Board of Education. The opposition of the Church persisted though the four appointed members represented equally the Catholic and Protestant faiths. There were to advise, but not vote on educational matters. The powers formerly vested in each section of the Board of Education and in the Board as a whole were now vested in the Council of Public Instruction. The ordinance provided for one program of study, one set of textbooks, and one set of regulations for teacher certification regardless of religious denomination. It did not, however, do away with the right of a religious minority to establish separate schools or share in governmental grants for education. The privilege of giving religious instruction in any school was continued, but was limited to the last half hour of the day. Haultain played a prominent part in the formulation of this bill even though it was introduced by Mr. D. Mowat.³ It certainly embodied Haultain's philosophy concerning the relative roles of church and state in education.

Appointment of D. J. Goggin

One of the clauses of the 1892 Ordinance that had an important bearing on the future educational development of the Territories empowered the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council to appoint a Superintendent of Education. The man selected by the Executive Committee was D. J. Goggin. He was one of the foremost Canadian educators of his day and contributed much in nine years to the educational system of the Territories.⁴ Inasmuch as Goggin's main concern was concern for education, his contributions appear to overshadow those of anyone else in the Territories during this period. It is the opinion of this writer that Haultain also made valuable contributions, but that his were not as widely recognized because of his position in governmental rather than educational circles. The work of these two men complemented each other's nicely. It would be difficult to say whose work was the most valuable. Haultain was concerned with the legal and administrative framework including such things as control, finances and expansion of educational facilities. Goggin's contribution fell rather in the application and utilization of the system inaugurated by Haultain.

³*The Regina Standard*, September 2, 1892. Frank Oliver in speaking to the Assembly pointed out that Mr. Mowat should show more gratitude to Mr. Haultain for the help received in drafting the school bill.

⁴A. D. Selinger, "The Contributions of D. J. Goggin to the Development of Education in the North-West Territories 1893-1902." (Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, 1960)

School Ordinance of 1901

The final step taken in the Territories towards a national school system came with the passage of the School Ordinance of 1901. This enactment placed education directly under the control of a Department of Education with a member of the Executive Committee acting as the Commissioner of Education. Haultain was the first to occupy this position. The 1901 Ordinance marks the formal end of a period of transition in school control from a board constituted along denominational lines to a government department responsible to the Assembly.

Still the 1901 Ordinance did not completely rule out all religious influence in education matters. An Executive Council of five members, at least two of whom were Roman Catholic, was appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council to advise the Department of Education on matters of school inspection, examination, training and licensing of teachers, courses of study, teachers' institutes and text and reference books. The minority were also given the privilege of establishing their own schools and school districts, if they so desired. Haultain, as he directed legislation toward a national school system, had been careful not to deprive minorities of the right to establish their own schools. However, by depriving religious groups of control over such things as inspection and teacher certification he took away their distinctive character and freedom of action. That the minority realized there were few advantages in forming separate schools is evidenced in the small number of school districts they formed in the period.⁵

The move toward public, non-sectarian schools was not Haultain's only contribution to education. He also did a great deal to provide generous appropriations and grants for education and by so doing made education one of the costliest items in the Territorial budget. At a time when the Assembly was pleading for a greater financial appropriation from the federal government, Haultain refused to reduce the educational expenditure. He felt that education warranted and should get as liberal an expenditure as possible. This is partially evidenced in the increase of educational grants from \$106,600 in 1893 to \$239,400 in 1904.⁶

The Haultain Government dealt with numerous educational problems during the Territorial period. Inasmuch as the foundations of the educational system were laid prior to his taking office, it remained for Haultain and his associates to deal with such things as growth of population and schools, improvements, development of

⁵Of the 18 separate school districts in existence in the Territories in 1905 only four of these were formed after 1894 and none after 1901.

⁶Adam Shortt and Arthur Doughty, *Canada and Its Provinces*, Vol. XIX (Edinburgh University Press, 1914), p. 155.

national schools as suggested by the changing nature of the population,⁷ and encouragement of education through grants. The following statement of J. H. Ross (one of Haultain's closest associates in government) illustrates to some degree the role of Haultain in developing education in the Territories:

Regarding the educational system, Mr. Haultain deserves praise. He has done a great deal towards bringing about the uniformity of the system. If he never did another thing, Mr. Haultain has done for the Territories what probably no other man will have the opportunity of doing for some years to come . . . The perfection of the school system is largely due to Mr. Haultain.⁸

Roman Catholic Opposition to Haultain's Educational Policy

As early as 1891, Father Lacombe, one of the leading Catholic clergy in the Territories, expressed concern over the declaration of Haultain to "work and vote against Separate schools".

I am very much surprised and sorry that Mr. Haultain took for his platform that "religious training was not necessary in the schools; we did not need to introduce religious teaching, we got that at home, at the Churches and at the Sunday School", that "his position would be to work and vote against it as hard as he could" . . . As a Christian priest and a defender of principles, I believe and consider sacred and necessary that no compromise on my part can be offered. I will retort to his meance in the same manner, viz: "I will work and vote against him as hard as I can!" Yes, sir, to the last we will fight for our religious system and privileges in our schools. We may be overwhelmed, but we will not surrender.⁹

The Catholic opposition to Haultain's policy became particularly evident with the passage of the 1892 School Ordinance. The Catholic clergy felt their right, previously safeguarded in the sectional prerogative and vote of the Board of Education, was now to be sacrificed by the abolition of the Board of Education. As a result they petitioned the Dominion Government in an attempt to have the legislation ruled *ultra vires*. Haultain, on behalf of the Executive Committee, replied to the petitions presented to the Governor-General-in-Council. He pointed out that the 1892 Ordinance reenacted previous legislation.¹⁰ He further claimed that the Catholics,

⁷Bernal E. Walker, "Public Secondary Education in Alberta: Organization and Curriculum 1889-1951", (unpublished Doctor of Philosophy dissertation, Stanford University, 1955), p. 19. Dr. Walker suggests that "in the early territorial period, when the small white population was evenly divided into two compact religious groups, the North-West Council provided for a dual type of sectarian control of education. As the Protestant part of the population expanded and broke up into many diverse sects, there was a movement in favor of public non-sectarian control of schools.

⁸*The Regina Standard*, October 21, 1897.

⁹*The Macleod Gazette*, February 19, 1891.

¹⁰The significance of Haultain's action in the 1891-92 session of the Territorial Assembly becomes more evident in light of the defence used in reply to the petitions of 1894. The Catholics felt that the 1892 Ordinance imposed a uniform course of instruction and a uniform selection of textbooks and deprived them of their right to examine and license teachers. Haultain was able to point out that some of these changes were not new, in that they had been law as a result of the earlier statute that he had introduced in the 1891-92 session. Inasmuch as the 1892 School Ordinance simply reenacted a number of regulations, there was no point in ruling it *ultra vires*.

immediately prior to the passage of the 1892 Ordinance, did not possess control over such things as examination and licensing of teachers and appointment of inspectors. In light of his statements the Governor-General-in-Council did nothing with the Roman Catholic appeal and turned the matter over to the Territorial Assembly where it was promptly voted down.

The Catholics were not content to let the matter drop and published a treatise entitled, *Hostility Unmasked*. This document accused Haultain and Goggin of acting under the influence of a secret society "to lessen the influence of the Catholic Church in the schools". Haultain openly denied these accusations when the matter came before the Assembly.

Open Catholic opposition to Haultain subsided somewhat after 1894, but reappeared during the autonomy struggle of the early 1900's. As the Liberals in Ottawa delayed the autonomy question, people began to speculate that the reason for their delay was the fear of opening the bitter issue of separate schools before the 1904 election. Public and press greatly magnified the issue to the point that the whole nation was anxiously awaiting to see how Laurier and the Liberals intended solving the problem. When Laurier came out in support of separate schools for the new provinces, one of his cabinet ministers, Clifford Sifton, resigned and Haultain began a violent attack on the policy of the federal government. Laurier was eventually forced to alter the bill and he chose to use the Ordinance of 1901 as the basis of the proposed educational system.

This move did not satisfy Haultain as he felt the federal government had infringed on the rights of the new provinces. Speaking in two Ontario bye-elections he announced his intention to use every constitutional means to prevent the proposals from being carried out. This pronouncement, coupled with his Conservative leanings, was sufficient reason for Laurier to overlook Haultain¹¹ as one of key administrative figures in the new provincial governments.

In the election campaigns for the premiership of Saskatchewan, Roman Catholic opposition once again faced Haultain. He continued, in spite of this threat to his political future, to speak in favor of national schools.

I believe in a National School system and that the function and mission of schools is to mould and assimilate all families making the prairies their home. Is it fair for one denomination to be especially picked out for recognition?¹²

These continued pronouncements on the part of Haultain led the Archbishop of St. Boniface to publish a memorandum that was

¹¹O. D. Skelton, *Life and Letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*, Vol. 11 (New York: The Century Co., 1922) p. 244.

¹²C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review*, 1905, p. 251.

directed to all clergy in his diocese. The main content of the letter included the following grievances against Haultain:

1. He has taken away from us the control of our schools through the Catholic section which he abolished in 1892.

2. He has taken away from us our Catholic books.

3. He has positively refused to appoint a Catholic inspector, notwithstanding the earnest request of the Archbishop of St. Boniface, seconded by the Venerable Bishop of St. Albert.

4. He has been most exacting and unfair toward Catholic teachers coming from England or different parts of Canada; the result is that in several Catholic centers the children do not know how to read and write.

5. He has opposed publicly the continuation of the actual Separate School system when the question of the organization of the new Provinces came up and he has declared that his first action if he should come back to power would be to abolish the clause in the law concerning a System of Separate Neutral Schools in the two new Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta. We also know the fiery speeches he has made in Ontario appealing to the worst prejudices of race and creed, denouncing His Excellency, the Apostolic Delegate, in awful terms, and boasting, if anything remains to Catholics, as far as Separate Schools are concerned, it is against his will.

6. In view of these facts how can Catholics, reasonably and conscientiously, give their vote in favor of Haultain and of the candidates who recognize him as their chief and leader, whom they are bound to follow and obey? The Catholics should, then, unite and vote for those who are in favor of the actual system of Separate Schools, though these Schools are neutral, because it is a partial recognition of their rights as free citizens of this country. Now is the time to show that we are a factor in public affairs. Let us unite, then and cast our votes for the leaders who favor Separate Schools, and their followers.¹³

Shortly after the Archbishop's letter was made public, Haultain retaliated with a manifesto to the people of Saskatchewan. He openly repeated the charges that the educational clauses of the Autonomy Bill were a result of a conspiracy, conceived at Ottawa, against the rights and liberties of the Province. Most challenging were his closing remarks:

. . . . As the matter now stands, it is clear to me that the only safety for our educational system lies in once and for all establishing it on an absolutely national basis, with equal rights for all, and special privileges to none. Pledged to carry this out I appeal to the free and enlightened electors of Saskatchewan to pronounce with no uncertain sound against clerical aggression, and its political allies who are attempting to barter the educational freedom of this Province for a temporary advantage.¹⁴

One cannot determine the effect of these two documents on the voters of Saskatchewan, but suffice it to say that Haultain was unsuccessful in his bid for the premiership of Saskatchewan. Undoubtedly part of his failure can be attributed to the fact that he had alienated a portion of the Catholic population.

Interest in Higher Education

Haultain's work in the field of education, as noted before, was not limited to developing a national system of education. Among

¹³The Regina Standard, November 29, 1905; and C. Hopkins, *op. cit.*, 1905, p. 253.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

other things he showed a sincere interest in the development of university education.

The last decade of the 19th century was a period of remarkable growth in territorial education. This growth, however, was not sufficient to warrant the establishment of a university. Yet as early as 1894 a group of prominent men in the Territories gathered to discuss the topic of a university. Goggin and Haultain were the two main speakers. Further interest and action was not forthcoming until 1903 when Haultain introduced the idea of a territorial university to the Assembly. Neither a name or a site was suggested for this institution as Haultain saw no need for the university to commence functioning until provincial status was established. He had two main purposes in placing the university ordinance on the statute books. The first reason was that he desired to illustrate the type of university he felt the Territories should have—one free from political and denominational control. Secondly, Haultain had been assured of a land grant from the federal government, and he wanted to show the framework for such an institution.

The 1903 University Ordinance, which was organized and presented by Haultain, was significant in light of the eventual university legislation that was formulated by the new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Both of these followed Haultain's plan rather closely. Both ignored his idea that the university should be an institution free from political control. Haultain's presence in the Saskatchewan Legislature was felt, however, and the University of Saskatchewan legislation is a good example of Haultain's opinion being respected even in his capacity as leader of the opposition. As a result of his amendment the University of Saskatchewan Act embodies the principle that the university should be governed by convocation and not the provincial government. No such provision is contained in the University of Alberta Act even though it too is based on the original pattern established by Haultain and the territorial government.

The action of Haultain in connection with the 1907 University of Saskatchewan Act illustrates the true character of the man. As the leader of the opposition he was in a position to criticize the university legislation. Instead he pointed out that there were times when the government and the opposition were allowed to drop their differences and unite on a measure for the good of the province as a whole. To him there was no more important legislation than that of giving birth to higher education.

Following the passage of the University Act in Saskatchewan the roll for the convocation was drawn up and nominations received for the chancellorship and senate. Of those nominated to the senate

Haultain received the largest number of votes. After 1917 he was given further opportunity to serve the university, this time in the capacity of chancellor.

Conclusions

During his career of political and judicial leadership in Western Canada, Haultain left an indelible mark on education. His aims and educational objectives led him to:

1. Take the lead in trying to establish a statutory framework for a public, non-sectarian school system.
2. Recommend and attempt to provide for the establishment of a liberal grant structure to help encourage adequate provision educationally for the expanding population of the Territories.
3. Elect, appoint and continually support D. J. Goggin, who filled the positions of Superintendent of Education and Director of Normal Schools.
4. Defend the provincial rights of the new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan when the Laurier Government attempted to enforce establishment of a separate school system. It is important to note that Haultain was not acting against separate schools because of a dislike of Roman Catholics, but rather because he felt separate schools would weaken the West in its growth and development.
5. Work toward the establishment of a western university that would be free from political and/or religious control.

A SURVEY OF SECOND LANGUAGE PROGRAMS FOR ENGLISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN IN GRADES ONE THROUGH NINE IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

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Problem

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to make a survey of second language programs for English-speaking children in Grades One through Nine in public tax supported Canadian schools. Information was sought concerning the following matters.

1. The responsibility of each of the following authorities with respect to teaching a second language in Grades One through Nine:
 - (a) Department of Education (does the Department require it, permit it, encourage it)
 - (b) School System (Board of Education)
 - (c) School (principal and staff)
2. The objectives of the program
3. Choice of language
4. Qualifications of teachers
5. Types of teachers
6. Grades involved in the program
7. Selection of pupils
8.
 - (a) Amount of time
 - (b) Scheduling of time
 - (c) Source of time
9. Articulation
10. Administrative problems

Importance of the Study

An increasing interest in the teaching of a second language in grades below the senior high level in Alberta schools during the past few years has been shared by both laymen and educationists. The Alberta Home and School Federation, in its submission to the Executive Council of the Government of Alberta on December 19, 1959, requested that instruction in French be extended to the elementary grades. Three large urban school systems are presently experimenting with courses in French at the Division II level. There are indications of similar experiments being carried on in a somewhat less formal manner in other school systems of Alberta. The

minutes of the November 16, 1959 meeting of the Elementary School Curriculum Committee contain reference to a lengthy discussion of the objectives, the desirability and the present status of teaching French in the elementary grades of Alberta schools. Although no committee has been established for the purpose of studying the problem, the Elementary School Curriculum Committee is alert to developments. The Royal Commission on Education in Alberta,¹ has made a specific recommendation favoring the offering of a second language at grades below the senior high school level.

Teaching a second language to English-speaking children appears to be receiving an increasing amount of attention in the other nine provinces of Canada. A brief review of the 1958 and 1959 issues of *News Letter* and *Canadian Education*, both publications of the Canadian Education Association, reveals that many school systems in Canada either have instituted the teaching of a second language in Grades I-IV and/or Grades VII-IX or are experimenting with such a program. A meeting of urban superintendents held during the Canadian Education Association Convention in September 1958 in Victoria, British Columbia, heard reports of teaching French at levels below Grade X in the following centers across Canada: London, Etobidoke, Victoria, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Halifax, South Peel, Moncton, Vancouver and Ottawa. One resolution passed at the Canadian Conference on Education held in Ottawa during February 1958, refers to the desirability of "... the introduction of French (or English in French-speaking schools) in elementary grades at an early age."

Limitations of the Study

This study is not concerned with second language programs in bilingual schools, in Department of National Defense schools, or in private schools; neither is it concerned with English programs for French-speaking children in the province of Quebec. The study is limited to a consideration of the problems of the administration of a second-language program in Grades One through Nine and does not attempt to discuss methodology, instructional materials and teaching techniques. A further limitation results from the nature of the professional literature related to this topic. Research evidence is lacking to such a degree that a review provides only a summary of practice and opinion.

Definition of Terms

By second language is meant any language other than English. Grade One through Nine means the first nine grades in school excluding kindergarten. By English-speaking children is meant those

¹Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Alberta, 1959.

children who attend school where the language of instruction is English. Other terms used to designate grade levels are Division One (Grades One, Two, Three), Division Two (Grades Four, Five, Six), Elementary School (Grades One through Six), Junior High School (Grades Seven through Nine), Senior High School (Grades Ten through Twelve or Thirteen).

Procedure

Plan of the Study

Two questionnaires were used in this study. An open-ended type of questionnaire was developed and forwarded for completion to the director of curriculum in the Department of Education in each of Canada's ten provinces. The questionnaire was designed to obtain information relative to the following:

1. The responsibility of each of the following authorities with respect to teaching a second language in Grades I through IX.
 - a. Department of Education
 - b. School System (Board of Education)
 - c. School (principal and staff)
2. Regulations (either by statute or otherwise of the Department of Education) with respect to the following:
 - a. Languages taught
 - b. Teacher qualifications
 - c. Grades included
 - d. Selection of pupils
 - e. Articulation of the program
 - f. Present status of the program
3. The names of school systems in the province where second language programs are offered in Grades I-VI and/or Grades VII-IX.
4. Copies of provincial publications available to the teachers of second languages in elementary and junior high school grades.

Completed questionnaires were returned by the ten directors of curriculum.

Following receipt of these completed questionnaires, a second questionnaire, very similar to the first, was designed and forwarded to sixty school systems across Canada which had been listed by the directors of curriculum as centers where programs, either experimental or reasonably well established, were in existence. This instrument was designed to obtain information concerning the following:

1. The objectives of teaching a second language in elementary and junior high school

2. The problems of introducing and maintaining such a program as they relate to
 - a. Teacher supply
 - b. Cost
 - c. Instruction time
 - d. Selection of pupils
 - e. Articulation
3. What second languages are being taught?
4. In what grades are these languages taught?
5. What plans, if any, does the system have for introducing such a program, extending a program presently in operation, or curtailing the present program if one is presently operating?

Thirty-eight questionnaires were completed and returned which represented 63 per cent of the number distributed.

Both the questionnaire forwarded to the directors of curriculum and the questionnaire forwarded to school systems were developed on the basis of what appeared to be the most frequently recurring topics found in the literature related to second language programs in Grades I-IX.

The completed questionnaires from directors of curriculum and school systems were analyzed to determine what practices appeared to be most acceptable in Canada in terms of meeting the problems inherent in second language programs in Grades I through IX as outlined immediately above.

Findings

1. *Responsibility of each of the following authorities with respect to second language programs (a) Department of Education, (b) School systems, and (c) School.*

- (a) Choice of language. In six of Canada's provinces the decision as to what language shall be taught resides with the Department of Education. In three provinces a choice may be made locally from an approved list supplied by the Department of Education. In only one province is there unrestricted local choice.
- (b) Setting the curriculum. In the provinces of Canada where second language programs are required or permitted the responsibility for developing the curriculum rests largely with the Department of Education, although there are indications that local authorities may adjust the curriculum to local needs. Only in two provinces where the program is permitted are local school systems allowed to develop their own curriculum. Curriculum development in experi-

mental programs appears to be a cooperative venture with the central authority giving guidance and assistance to the local system.

- (c) *Setting standards of teacher qualifications.* Where programs are required the setting of standards of teacher qualification is almost exclusively the prerogative of the central authority. In only one province is local authority granted. When it is remembered that the chief qualification required other than a certificate is fluency, it seems probable that evaluation of this ability may be the responsibility of local systems. Where programs are permitted the setting of standards of teacher qualifications is left to the local school system.

2. *Objectives of the program.* Second language programs in elementary and junior high school grades, whether required or permitted by the Department of Education, seem to stress the same general objectives. The programs of study of the various provinces reveal the following objectives are the most common ones:

The development of

- (a) Ability to understand and to speak the language
- (b) Ability to read and to write the language

Not so frequently stated are two other objectives:

- (c) A good basis for the study of a second language in high school
- (d) An interest in another language and in the history, life and contributions of another culture.

In all programs there is an emphasis on the aural-oral approach for about the first two years, following which written work is also stressed.

Local systems gave the following reasons, listed in the order of frequency, for establishing second language programs: bilingual community, cultural, enrichment for superior pupils, community pressures, recently discovered knowledge about learning a second language early in life, and experimental purposes.

3. *Languages taught.* French is the most frequently taught second language in elementary and junior high school grades in Canadian schools. Where Spanish, German, or Latin is the second language chosen, it usually appears in the high school program. These conditions appear to hold true regardless of whether the central or local authority makes the decisions as to which language shall be taught and regardless of whether the program is required or permitted by central or local authorities.

4. *Qualifications of teachers.* In addition to regular certification, fluency in the second language is the most frequently required qualification of the teacher. Special certification is not required in

any province and special courses in addition to regular certification were referred to in only two provinces. Qualifications required of teachers seem to be about the same whether programs are required or permitted.

5. *Types of teachers.* Second language programs in Canada utilize the services of the regular classroom teacher, the specialist and the part-time teacher. Of these three sources the regular classroom teacher is the most frequent choice, particularly at the elementary level. There is a greater tendency to use the services of a specialist in the junior high school grades. Part-time teachers are frequently used in both the elementary and junior high school grades.

6. *Grades included in the program.* Of the four provinces of Canada in which a second language is required, one province requires it in elementary school (Grades III-VI), one requires it in Grades VII-IX and two require it in Grade IX. In addition, each of these four provinces permits a second language in grades below those in which a second language is required. Six provinces permit the program in elementary school, the other five limit it to junior high school. It would seem that the majority of second language programs in Canada are at the junior high school level but there are strong indications of extensive experimentation at the elementary school level as well as a tendency to extend existing programs downward through the grades.

7. *Pupil selection.* Second language programs in elementary and junior high school seem to have a slight tendency to be selective in nature rather than elective, while compulsory programs are considerably less popular. Even in the four provinces where a second language program is required, selective and elective programs are also in existence. Where selection is required, the criteria used are always of an academic nature, such as scholastic ability, academic achievement, and I.Q.

8. *Time allotment.* There appears to be a tendency for slightly more time to be spent on instruction where programs are required by the Department of Education than where they are not. The average time for both required and permitted programs is approximately:

- 65 minutes per week in Division I
- 100 minutes per week in Division II
- 135 minutes per week in junior high school.

Instruction is usually given during regular school hours. No clearly defined answer was given to how the necessary time was found in the curriculum for the addition of a second language program. Presumably this might be a matter of scheduling of subjects at the

junior high school level where the program is elective. One can only assume that this problem has been met at the elementary level in a variety of ways, depending on the individual teacher.

9. *Articulation.* With the exception of one province (Quebec) where there is a compulsory program from Grades III to IX, there is not a continuous program through elementary and junior high school. Where elective or selective programs exist, or where experimentation is being carried on, articulation is one of the major concerns.

10. *Administrative problems.* The most frequently mentioned administrative problems are an adequate supply of qualified teachers and the articulation of the program. Other problems mentioned included development of curriculum and selection of students.

Conclusions

1. The position which the United States and Canada have been forced to assume in international affairs has made many statesmen, educationists, and laymen aware of their need to understand other peoples, their languages and their cultures. The awareness of this need has been a strong motivating force in the development of second programs.

2. Research concerning the age at which children can most readily learn a second language has exerted considerable influence on the development of second language programs, particularly in the elementary school.

3. The recently developed emphasis on differentiation of instruction has caused some people to look to second language programs as a suitable course of enrichment for superior children.

4. Dissatisfaction with the achievements of many students in existing secondary school language programs, particularly with respect to their ability to understand and to speak the language, has caused serious doubts as to how adequately a second language can be learned in three years of high school.

5. There is insufficient research evidence on which to base a decision concerning the contribution that the study of second languages can make to the elementary and/or junior high school program.

6. Public interest in second language programs has created a situation which demands the attention and consideration of local authorities, Departments of Education, and Faculties of Education. In spite of the lack of research evidence as to what is actually accomplished by second language programs, they are being developed and will possibly increase in number as time goes on.

7. The long established programs in the United States and Canada are largely those which have been designed to:

- (a) meet the needs of bilingual communities, or
- (b) enrich the curriculum for superior pupils

8. Most provinces in Canada are experiencing an increased activity and interest in second language programs for elementary and junior high school grades.

9. Second language programs in Canada are being developed largely through the initiative of local school systems with varying degrees of assistance, encouragement, and guidance from the Department of Education.

10. Second language programs being developed in Canada have encountered the following major administrative difficulties:

- (a) a shortage of adequately qualified teachers
- (b) articulation of the program

which also appear to be major administrative problems of similar programs in the United States.

Recommendations

1. Second language programs in elementary and junior high school should be permitted by the central authority, but not required.

2. Local school systems should accept considerable responsibility for developing second language programs, particularly during the experimental period.

3. School systems should give very careful and thorough study to all the implications of introducing a second language program in elementary and junior high school before taking any definite action.

4. Local school systems which plan to introduce second language programs should accept the following responsibilities:

- (a) to develop objectives for the program which are acceptable to both the professional staff and to the general public
- (b) to develop a long-range plan for the program in terms of an adequate supply of teachers, a satisfactory means of articulating the program, and a plan for financing the additional costs resulting from the program.
- (c) to institute and maintain an extensive program of in-service education with teachers who are required to teach second language programs
- (d) to make careful and regular evaluation of the program in terms of the stated objectives.

5. Departments of Education and/or teacher training institutions should give leadership to local systems in developing second language programs in the following ways:

- (a) by establishing committees for the purpose of studying existing programs, reviewing the current professional literature and providing to school systems some general guideline to assist in developing programs
- (b) by providing resource people to assist local systems in developing programs
- (c) by developing teacher training courses which will qualify teachers to accept the added responsibilities of second language programs.

6. Where a second language program is established in a bilingual community, school systems should seriously consider the advisability of making the program available to all pupils.

7. Where a second language program is established in a community in which there is no minority ethnic group, consideration should be given to making the program a source of enrichment for superior pupils.

8. The second language program in elementary and/or junior high school should form a part of a continuous language program which covers at least six years of study.

9. The possibilities of using television for the instruction of both pupils and teachers in second language programs should be thoroughly explored.

REALISM OF EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL CHOICES AT GRADE NINE

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One of the fundamental functions of counselling and group guidance at grade nine is to assist students to make realistic educational and vocational choices. Educators have sought to measure the extent to which counselling and group vocational guidance may contribute to this end. For present purposes, three criteria, namely: stability, compatibility and permanence were accepted as the criteria of realism. The findings of the study suggest the superiority of both group guidance and counselling over either one of these two procedures alone. The evidence indicates also that, in ranking at least, the sequencing of group guidance first and then counselling has advantages over the opposite sequencing or the combination of these two procedures.

Yet the evidence presented is not clearly definitive since other patterns of sequencing did themselves show considerable gains in establishing educational and vocational realism. A decline in realism from that found in grade nine was noted when the students proceeded to grade ten. There is a need for more definitive and precise studies in this field before firm conclusions can be reached.

The Nature of the Problem

Counselling and vocational group guidance are comparatively recent additions to junior high schools in Alberta.* Although these services are now being offered in many junior high schools, specific research is necessary to evaluate the results and to provide data upon which to base improvement.

Until the introduction of specialized guidance, counselling of grade nine students on course and vocational choices was largely an incidental service provided by teachers and principals. The ever increasing complexity of the occupational scene, with a corresponding increase in complexity of senior high school curricula, has necessitated that haphazard course placement and vocational guidance be replaced with specialized and directed services.

In order that such services may provide the maximum benefit to students, it is necessary to know the extent to which guidance affects students' course and vocational choices. Thus modifications

*Counselling as a specialized service, was introduced into junior high schools of Alberta in 1947.

in techniques and types of service may be developed, based on clearly defined goals and supported by the knowledge that student needs are being met. This study was intended to explore the influence of counselling and group guidance procedures alone and in sequence on the realism of grade nine students' educational and vocational choices.

Careful analysis of junior high school performance is necessary in helping students to make wise and realistic choices in grade ten. For example, students with lower than "B" gradings are particularly in need of guidance sufficiently early in the grade nine year to enable them to improve gradings if possible to the level that serious restrictions will not be placed on grade ten choices and to assist them to choose courses in line with their abilities.

Furthermore, the increasing complexity of today's society has intensified the need for specialized educational and vocational guidance. The range of choice both of educational and vocational opportunity is bewildering to students, especially those of grade nine who are faced with the crucial choices required at this level.

To provide increasingly sound and realistic counselling and group guidance, it is necessary that guidance workers evaluate existing services to determine their effectiveness. Major studies, which have been made in this field, have not seemed fully applicable to the educational course and vocational counselling of junior high school students in Alberta schools. This study then, aims to fill a definite need for local research into the effectiveness of counselling and group guidance in an Alberta junior high school situation.

Criteria

Three criteria of realism are used namely permanence, stability and compatability of educational course and vocational choice.

Permanence of choice refers to the degree to which vocational and educational course choices remain unchanged throughout group guidance and individual counselling processes. Stability refers to the consistency of choice between those made at counselling interviews and choices made at phase points. Compatability of choice is the consistency of the educational program choice with the student's stated vocational choice.

Limitations

The design of the study was constructed to examine realism of choice during a certain specific period of time, namely during a twelve week period in the second term of the grade nine school year, and then a year latter in April of the following school year.

Despite the fact that twelve weeks is a comparatively short period in the students' lives, it is a vital period since it is at this

time that students must make choices concerning high school courses. It is at this point that they make crucial decisions relative to their future educational and vocational plans. Thus the limitation of the shortness of the experimental period is, to some extent, negated by the crucial decisions of this period.

A second limitation relates to factors other than counselling that might have operated to affect changes in students' choices. The main variables, those relating to group guidance and counselling have been identified and controlled to a large extent. Such factors as the influence of parents, siblings or friends and the influence of classroom instruction remain largely as uncontrolled variables. However, counsellors were conversant with these influences and took them into consideration when counselling students.

Design of the Experiment

The design of this study was constructed to compare first, the effects of counselling, group guidance, and no counselling or group guidance on educational course and vocational choices using the three realism criteria over a short treatment period. Secondly, to examine the influence of different phasing of counselling and group guidance on realism of choice over a longer period.

TABLE I
EXPERIMENTAL PHASES OF COUNSELLING AND
GROUP GUIDANCE TREATMENT

Group	Time	Phases	Treatment	Code	Code Key
A	First 6 weeks	P1-P2	Group Guidance	GO	Group guidance only
	Second 6 weeks	P2-P3	Counselling	CO	No special treatment
	One year	P3-P4	No Treatment	XT	Counselling only
B	First 6 weeks	P1-P2	Counselling	CO	
	Second 6 weeks	P2-P3	Group Guidance	GO	
	One year	P3-P4	No treatment	XT	
C	First 6 weeks	P1-P2	No treatment	XT	No treatment
	Second 6 weeks	P2-P3	Counselling and Group Guidance	CG	Counselling Group Guidance
	One year	P3-P4		XT	

Tabulation of choices was made at the following five points:
(1) Before treatment of any kind was given (called P1).
(2) At the end of the first treatment period (P2).
(3) At the end of the second treatment period (P3).
(4) At April of grade ten year (P4).
(5) At the counselling interviews: course (c) and vocational choices (v).

Group guidance means instruction in Unit IX—Education and Work in Alberta of the grade nine Health and Personal Development course.

Method of Analysis

Realism of educational and vocational choices is expressed in terms of the criteria. To provide a basis of comparison, criteria are

expressed in terms of ratio computed as percentage scores. Variations of realism of choice may range from one hundred per cent, or perfect realism, to zero per cent or complete lack of realism.

The method of analysis is directed toward detecting differences in realism among three groups at different phases of treatment. The comparisons are done for each of the four educational choice categories: matriculation, commercial, technical and "no choice" categories. The comparisons for each educational course pattern are made for each of the three criteria.

TABLE II
PERMANENCE OF COURSE AND VOCATIONAL CHOICES
IN PERCENTAGE SCORES AT SELECTED POINTS
DURING THE EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD

Treatment Period	Treatment	Experimental Group	Matric.	Comm.	Tech.	Gen.	No Choice
			C* V†	C V	C V	C V	C V
First P1 to P2	GO	A	80 83	90 71	64 20	33 /	47 65
	CO	B	94 97	83 80	80 0	/ /	18 48
	XT	C	92 82	82 88	83 100	/ /	39 56
Second P2 to P3	CO	A	93 93	80 83	75 75	50 /	16 64
	GO	B	94 85	60 43	57 100	0 /	0 35
	CG	C	94 86	54 67	44 43	0 /	20 69
Third P3 to P4	XT	A	86 77	50 73	27 0	0 /	0 48
	XT	B	92 86	91 83	16 8	0 /	0 30
	XT	C	84 80	44 50	38 43	/ /	0 29

*Course choice

†Vocational choice

Summary

In the matriculation category groups showed a high degree of permanence of educational course choice.

All groups were slightly less permanent in educational course choice upon entrance to senior high school.

Vocational permanence in the matriculation group followed a similar pattern to that of educational choice.

The high compatibility scores of matriculation students might indicate that, generally, students understand what matriculation

means and are choosing their life's work accordingly. The three periods of greatest uncertainty are: 1. before any treatment 2. when receiving group guidance after counselling 3. upon entering senior high school.

It would seem logical that before counselling or group guidance grade nine students would be uncertain of their educational and vocational choices. The decrease of compatibility during group guidance may be due to the general nature of vocational instruction received in grade nine. Therefore, the specific requirements and educational background information necessary for choosing a specific field of work may be lacking in the case of many students who have made incompatible choices. The difference between studying and planning for a career and simply having aspirations towards entering a career may not be made clear to such students by group guidance instruction.

TABLE III
STABILITY OF COURSE AND VOCATIONAL CHOICES
COMPARED WITH CHOICES MADE AT COUNSELLING
INTERVIEW (PERCENTAGE SCORES)

Treatment Period	Treatment	Group	Matric.	Comm.	Tech.	Gen.	No Choice
			C* V†	C V	C V	C V	C V
AT P1	XT	A	73 88	49 50	57 0	0 /	7 62
	XT	B	68 85	66 83	83 100	/ /	0 55
	XT	C	50 81	79 82	66 33	/ /	3 29
Phase 1 P1 to P2	GO	A	71 91	80 86	66 100	0 /	7 64
	CO	B	98 90	88 83	50 100	0 /	100 79
	XT	C	73 90	79 91	100 77	/ /	6 31
Phase 2 P2 to P3	CO	A	90 93	95 93	62 75	0 /	33 81
	GO	B	96 95	77 100	100 0	0 /	40 72
	CG	C	96 98	64 91	88 77	/ /	20 36
Phase 3	XT	A	95 91	63 93	88 100	0 /	0 100
	XT	B	98 95	77 50	66 0	/ /	0 64
	XT	C	92 95	57 72	66 55	/ /	0 83

*Course choice
†Vocational choice

TABLE IV
PER CENT COMPATABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL AND
VOCATIONAL CHOICES BY TREATMENT PERIODS

Period of Treatment	Treatment	Group	Matric.	Comm.	Tech.	No Choice
Before Treatment (at P1)	XT	A	96	70	71	55
	XT	B	94	83	40	97
	XT	C	73	88	50	90
First Period (P1 to P2)	GO	A	96	80	33	56
	CO	B	96	70	29	29
	XT	C	95	92	77	94
Second Period (P2 to P3)	CO	A	95	75	27	16
	GO	B	84	55	50	20
	CG	C	80	90	87	35
Third Period (P3 tot P4)	XT	A	77	92	57	0
	XT	B	89	82	80	0
	XT	C	98	100	83	0

However, regardless of treatment during the experimental period, all students by the end of the treatment period were comparatively at the same level in their educational choices— all students having made an educational choice.

Although some students had not made vocational choices at the end of treatment, those vocational choices which had been made, were generally compatible with educational choices.

To achieve this degree of realism, evidence in the study suggests the following:

(a) If vocational guidance instruction is given before counselling, there is evidence of considerable change toward realism of choice. This is shown in Table III.

(b) Percentage increases of stability ranging in groups from three percentage points to one-hundred points were noted. However, when counselling is given, following group vocational instruction, it generally results in a further strengthening of realism of choice. In permanence, the range of increase is from ten to fifty-five per cent and in stability the range is from seven to fifteen per cent increase.

(c) When counselling precedes group guidance, there is slight evidence of changing choices toward greater realism during group guidance. In fact there is evidence of decrease of realism in permanence and some evidence of decreasing realism of stability of choice while receiving group vocational guidance.

(d) During the experimental period the group receiving no treatment in the first phase showed considerable evidence of moving toward realism of choice. This phenomenon might be explained on the basis that most students are acutely aware of the fact that their school mates are receiving certain kinds of treatment and they are influenced by this fact. In this study, the choices made during "no treatment" phases may also have been influenced by information regarding the counselling interviews and group guidance some of which undoubtedly may have been passed among the grade nine students involved in the experiment. However, there seems to be evidence in the experiment that the movement toward making educational course and vocational choices was considerably accelerated when counselling was received following a "no treatment" period.

Further study of the data leads to the following conclusions:

1. Evidence seems to indicate that counselling exerts a stronger influence on grade nine students toward stability of matriculation choices than does group guidance.

2. Upon entrance into senior high school, all groups show some evidence of decreased permanence, stability and compatibility. It seems likely that the change of educational environment may have helped to create this situation. A second factor causing decrease of permanence and stability at high school entrance results from failure and dropouts at this time.

3. The fact that a fairly large percentage of students' vocational choices fall in the "no choice" category, even in senior high school, is of significance. The uncertainty that some students in all groups seem to show in regard to making vocational choices may be indicative of lack of emphasis on vocational instruction by counsellors, teachers and administrators.

Conclusions and Implications

This study sought to explore the influence of group guidance and counselling procedures, alone and in sequence, on the realism of the educational and vocational choices of grade nine students. To this end the following hypotheses were examined:

- (1) that as a result of a combined group guidance-counselling guidance program, more realistic educational and vocational choices will result than by either group guidance or counselling procedures alone;

(2) that the sequence of a group guidance-counselling process is such that greater realism of educational and vocational choice will be achieved by placing group guidance procedures before counselling in preference to the opposite sequence or to the simultaneous conduct of the two procedures;

(3) that realism of educational and vocational choices of grade nine students will continue into the senior high school program.

The data would suggest first that both counselling and group guidance procedures are better than either procedure alone. Further, while all groups at the end of the experimental grade nine period of the study showed equivalent stability and permanence having had both group guidance and counselling, the data seemed to suggest that the phasing: group guidance and then counselling, had advantages over the reverse sequence and also that the former phasing had advantages over group guidance and counselling given simultaneously. Further, the data seemed to suggest that group guidance procedures tended to produce a lack of stability of realism which could best be reestablished by counselling.

The third hypothesis, that of continued realism into grade ten remains open to question. It was found that in many instances such realism was maintained. However, the nature of the high school program, with the cultural prestige of the matriculation program together with the effect of the failures and dropouts at grade nine, tended to undo some of the realism achieved at the grade nine level.

The implications of the findings of the study, which are at best suggestive only of trends, are as follows:

1. The group vocational guidance program should precede counselling. This could be established on an a priori basis in that the group vocational guidance program itself introduces the student to wide numbers of opportunities available to him. This, by its very nature, would cause instability or lack of permanence of realism. Subsequently, in the counselling situation, the student with his counsellors, can explore with greater meaning the opportunities available. On the other hand, the evidence of this study is not sufficiently conclusive to establish the superiority of the above sequence inasmuch as major gains were made by alternate sequencing.

2. This study has not been other than exploratory in nature and has sought only to suggest critical areas in the field outlined. There is a need for more precise and demanding statistical evaluations. Obviously, more rigid control of the experimental variables for a larger and more diverse sampling in a wide variety of schools is a logical next step.

THE PREDICTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SUPERIOR GRADE THREE PUPILS

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The Problem

Confidence has been expressed in the ability of the school to predict, with instruments currently available, the achievement of its promising children (16). Russell (21) urges early implementation of testing programs for this purpose. The present study compared three intelligence tests as predictors of achievement of superior grade three pupils.

The importance of intelligence tests in measurement of the pupils' ability has long been recognized. Coefficients of correlation ranging from .40 to .60 have been found in numerous studies of the relationship between IQ and school marks (13). Despite the influence on academic achievement of such factors as motivation, time devoted to study, physical and emotional traits and environmental influences, Terman (22) in 1947 was able to reaffirm his contention of thirty years earlier that the IQ is one of the most important things that can be learned about a child.

Identification of the gifted pupil and prediction of achievement are matters of immediate concern today. Adequate training of superior pupils is increasingly necessary to meet the growing needs of society, particularly in technological fields. The school is under "constant criticism for its apparent failure to provide for children of special ability and to challenge these pupils to greater effort" (12). Passow (17) and Laycock (15) deplore the detrimental effect on the nation's manpower of failure to discover its talented youth. Although special school programs for superior pupils have been in operation since 1915 and earlier (19), interest in the problems of the gifted has generally lagged behind concern for pupils of low ability. Renewed interest in the former group is evident today.

Related Studies

Burt (6) concluded that intelligence is the predominant constituent of educational ability. In a comparison of intelligence tests and achievement tests, Richardson (20) found the intelligence test to be the best single predictor of future success. Alexander (1), in a study of teacher judgments and intelligence tests obtained the results shown in Table I. Teacher judgments were found to agree with classification by a standardized intelligence test only 58% of the time.

TABLE I
INTELLIGENCE RATING BY TEACHER JUDGMENTS AND
BY A STANDARDIZED INTELLIGENCE TEST
(Alexander, 1953)

Intelligence Category	Teacher Ratings	Number of Teacher Ratings Confirmed by Test
Among the five highest	199	114 or 57.3%
Among the five lowest	185	107 or 57.8%
	384	221 or 57.6%

N=1,030

With respect to teacher-made tests as predictors, it has been found (7) that their reliability is lowered by the influence of personal factors. In the case of standardized achievement tests, however, prediction is improved over the use of intelligence tests alone (18). The inadequacy of chronological age in prediction of achievement is indicated by the finding of a committee on promotion policies in Alberta in 1954 that 17.6% of Alberta pupils from grades one to eight were over-age for their grades.

Coefficients of correlation obtained by Bond (10) are reported in Table II as an example of prediction studies which indicate a marked relationship between intelligence and achievement.

TABLE II
CORRELATION OF ACHIEVEMENT WITH THE
STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE TEST (Bond, 1940)

Subject	Correlation with the Stanford Binet Intelligence Test
Reading vocabulary	.79
Reading comprehension	.73
Literary acquaintance	.60
English usage	.59
History	.59
Biology	.54
Geometry	.48
Spelling	.46

The variation among subjects in effectiveness of prediction is consistent with the findings of Burt (10), Gates and Jersild (10) and others.

Peel and Rutter (18) found one intelligence test to be superior to any other single predictor of success in grammar schools. Climenhaga (8) and Gavinchuk (11) both found a substantial relationship between intelligence and achievement at the junior

high school level; the latter reported that no one intelligence test was consistently superior to the others investigated. The majority of prediction studies which are reported dealt with non-selective populations. Very small coefficients were obtained by Wrigley (24) and by Bishton in studies of gifted pupils, "the most extreme deviates on a continuous scale in matters of social, psychological, and educational growth and development." (5).

Barrett and Baumgarten (4) pointed to the characteristic high verbal ability of achievers and the difficulty of obtaining from many tests an adequate measure of intelligence of pupils who have difficulty with verbal symbolism. Evidence for the predictive value of the performance types of intelligence tests is presented by Barrett (3).

Bailey (2) used several of the same instruments as were employed in this study. It was found that the Detroit Beginning First-Grade test correlated more highly with the Stanford-Binet (.81) than did the California Test of Mental Maturity (.58). The latter was found to be lacking in discrimination among the more capable pupils.

Design

Data

Information regarding superior pupils was obtained from the results of a survey of Edmonton grade three pupils which was conducted by the Division of Educational Psychology in June, 1956. On the basis of 120 or higher on the California Test of Mental Maturity, a sample of 178 was selected from a grade three population of some 3,700. This study made use of scores on three intelligence tests and scores in total achievement and in reading, language and arithmetic.

Testing instruments

The three intelligence tests employed were the Detroit Beginning First-Grade Intelligence Test, the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity and Raven's Progressive Matrices. The familiar 1937 revision of the Detroit test, first published in 1921, had been administered at the beginning of grade one. The California Test of Mental Maturity, while it has been criticized for over-emphasis of its sub-scores, is rated by Kuhlman (14) and by others as one of the best on the market. The Progressive Matrices is a non-verbal test. It is designed to measure Spearman's *g*, a factor of intelligence entering into all test situations, and it is intended to be wholly culture-free and independent of even elementary education. Scores on the Primary Battery of the California Achievement Tests, which had been administered at the same time as the California and the

Progressive Matrices intelligence tests, were used as criteria of achievement. Although the battery does not escape the criticism of lack of logical validity, this (fourth) edition of Tieg and Clark's well-known achievement tests has been described by Witty (23) as having no equal as a survey instrument.

Procedure

Each of the four achievement scores was compared with each of the three intelligence test scores to determine the degree of relationship, if any, between achievement and intelligence. Product-moment coefficients of correlation were calculated. Significance of coefficients obtained was tested against the null hypothesis and where the coefficients were sufficiently large to warrant the claim of a real relationship between the variables, the degree of confidence in such relationship was noted. Intercorrelations of the intelligence tests were also obtained.

Findings

Intelligence and total achievement

Table III shows the coefficients obtained for intelligence tests and total achievement.

TABLE III
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND
TOTAL ACHIEVEMENT

Intelligence Test	N	r	Level of significance
Detroit Beginning First-Grade	178	.33	.01
Progressive Matrices	178	.34	.01
California Test of Mental Maturity	178	.16	.05

While positive r's were obtained, significant at either the .01 or .05 level, they are small as compared with coefficients usually found between achievement and intelligence. Lack of variability of the sample accounts for this fact.

In the absence of a completely satisfactory test of significance of differences of r's, the following formula, applicable to correlated r's was used:

$$t = \frac{(r_{12} - r_{13}) \sqrt{(N - 3) (1 + r_{23})}}{\sqrt{2(1 - r_{12}^2 - r_{13}^2 r_{23} + 2r_{12}r_{13}r_{23})}} \quad (9)$$

As it use also implies random selection of the sample, this test of t may be regarded as a non-conclusive but nevertheless valuable indication of significance of differences. The highest t-value thus ob-

tained was 1.90 which falls short of the t-table figure of 1.97 required at the .05 level to claim significant departure from zero.

With the reservations stated it may be said that the Progressive Matrices and the Detroit proved to be the best predictors of total achievement of superior pupils. The figure obtained for the latter, almost as high as for the Matrices in spite of its time lag, speaks well for its effectiveness.

Intelligence and reading

Reading scores from the achievement test battery are a composite of achievement in vocabulary and in comprehension. Of special interest here is the highly verbal nature of the California test and, to a lesser degree, of the Detroit, as compared with the non-verbal Progressive Matrices. The results of correlation of the three scores with reading scores are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND
READING ACHIEVEMENT

Intelligence Test	N	r	Level of significance
Detroit Beginning First-Grade	178	.22	.01
Progressive Matrices	178	.27	.01
California Test of Mental Maturity	178	.09	*

*Not significant

Of the coefficients of correlation, all positive, two were found to be slightly lower and one considerably lower than in the case of total achievement. The Progressive Matrices and the Detroit, in that order, ranked as the best predictors. This conclusion is subject to the same reservation as was observed with respect to total achievement, since the t-values calculated were too low to claim significance of differences of r's. No real relationship was found to exist between reading and the California test.

Intelligence and language

The language scores are, again, made up of several sub-scores, English (capitalization and punctuation) and spelling.

As shown in Table V, positive r's were obtained for all three intelligence tests. The coefficients for the Detroit and the Matrices are lower than those found for total achievement but somewhat above the reading coefficients. Both are again significant at the .01 level while the .08 figure for the California is not. A greater degree of confidence is possible in claiming superiority of the first

two tests over the California as t-values of 2.49 and 2.04 respectively were obtained, indicating significance of differences at the .05 level. Contrary to the results of the two previous sections, the Detroit ranked above the Matrices.

TABLE V
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND
LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

Intelligence Test	N	r	Level of significance
Detroit Beginning First-Grade	178	.32	.01
Progressive Matrices	178	.28	.01
California Test of Mental Maturity	178	.08	*

*Not significant

Intelligence and arithmetic

The results of correlation of intelligence test scores and arithmetic scores are shown in Table VI.

TABLE VI
RELATION BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND
ARITHMETIC ACHIEVEMENT

Intelligence Test	N	r	Level of significance
Detroit Beginning First-Grade	178	.36	.01
Progressive Matrices	178	.36	.01
California Test of Mental Maturity	178	.20	.01

In this area the Detroit and the Progressive Matrices were found to be equal as predictors and both ranked above the California. The coefficients of .36 found here were the highest obtained in the study. As in the case of total achievement and reading, t-tests failed to demonstate significance of differences of r's.

Intercorrelations of intelligence tests

As correlations of group tests with the Stanford-Binet are reported as evidence of their validity, so intercorrelations among group tests indicate the extent to which they measure the same aspect of intelligence. In comparing the three intelligence tests used in this study, the sub-scores of the California in language and non-language were included. Of the r's shown in Table VII, only the .19 between the Detroit and the Matrices was found to be significant at the .05 level. The others were so small as to be attributable to

chance. It is of interest to note that the tests yielding the r of .19 were the Detroit, involving language, and the language-free Matrices, while no significance relationship was found between the Detroit and either the California or its language score which contributes largely to the total. The two tests showing a significant correlation are the two which had previously been indicated as the best predictors of achievement in the various areas.

TABLE VII
INTERCORRELATIONS OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS

	Progressive Matrices	California Total	California Language	California Non-language
Detroit	.19	.09	.11	.05
Progressive Matrices ...		.10	.06	.10

Summary and Conclusions

1. The Detroit Beginning First-Grade Intelligence Test and the Progressive Matrices were found to be the best predictors of total achievement and achievement in reading, language and arithmetic. The former was slightly superior in prediction of language, equal to the Matrices in arithmetic and slightly inferior with respect to total and reading achievement.
2. The highest coefficient for the California was found in prediction of arithmetic achievement. No real relationship was found to exist between the California and achievement in reading or language.
3. Intercorrelations of the intelligence tests produced a significant coefficient in only one instance, namely between the Detroit and the Matrices. Failure to find significant correlation of the California with either of the other two intelligence tests may be due, in part, to differences in discriminatory power among superior pupils.
4. The lapse of time between the administration of the Detroit test and the measurement of achievement is additional evidence of the value of this instrument.
5. The highly non-verbal Progressive Matrices was found to be superior in prediction of achievement, including language, to the California Test of Mental Maturity which is highly dependent on language facility. This suggests that mental ability, or g , as measured by the Progressive Matrices, is more closely related to achievement of superior pupils than are the scores of the California.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE CALGARY LAGGARD POLICY

ARTHUR G McFAUL

Since the end of the Second World War, the population of Calgary high schools has rapidly increased. The large group of students which society has placed in our secondary schools contains many who are resistant to the educative process. Despite all efforts of the school, these indifferent students do not appear able to adjust to the school situation, and may disrupt the academic experiences of other students.

Conscious of the bad effect the resistant student was having on the academic progress of the serious student, Calgary high school principals, in 1953, recommended to the Calgary School Board application of Sections 179 and 369 of the Alberta School Act. Section 179 grants the board the power to make regulations for the management of the school, and to exclude from school students who are guilty of habitual neglect of duty. Section 369 grants this power to the principal and teacher, and establishes the method by which such exclusion will take place.

Upon the recommendation of the high school principals, the Calgary School Board stated its policy, which with amendments now reads:

A high school student is entitled to education at public expense provided he puts forth a serious effort to profit from that education. In 1953 the per pupil cost for high school education in Calgary was \$320.63 and there was difficulty in finding accommodation for all who sought admission. The public cannot afford to provide such service to pupils who take an indifferent attitude toward their responsibility in providing a good return on this investment.

In implementing the above policy the following statements will apply:

1. Our concern is not so much with the pupils who try hard but are unable to succeed as with those who *simply fail to put forth an effort*.
2. Such pupils can be identified rather early and should be referred to guidance counsellors for consideration. It is expected that they should be known by the first reporting period, that is, on or before November 15th.
3. Parents should be made aware of the problem as soon as possible after this date either by letter or personal interview.
4. The principal should advise the parent on or before January 15th that the pupil will not be permitted to remain in school after February 14th unless his effort has improved.
5. On February 10th a letter shall go from the principal to the parent advising of the enforced withdrawal of the pupil as of February 14th.
6. At the same time the principal shall send to the Superintendent a list of all pupils who were asked to withdraw, together with data pertinent to their withdrawal.
7. All border-line cases given the privilege of continuing after February 14th shall be considered as probationary students subject to later enforced withdrawal if there is a falling off of effort.

Educational administrators in Calgary emphasize that the policy is concerned, not with the students who try hard and fail, but with those who have ability but fail to put forth an effort. When a student is reported to the School Board, it must be shown clearly that, in the considered opinion of the staff, he has failed to put forth the required effort. In doubtful cases, the verdict will favor the student.

There is no defensible basis for the exclusion of students who are passing their subjects. The only basis for exclusion, then, is failure by a student capable of passing grades. Exclusion is not based on one reporting period only but follows from persistent laggardness through successive reporting periods after all possible measures have been taken to rehabilitate the student.

Although the policy has been established by the board and exclusion is based on action by the superintendent, the actual techniques used in implementing the policy are within the province of the individual principal. Most schools use a capacity-achievement expectancy chart, a device developed by Dr. Safran, Director of Guidance of Calgary Schools, to initially screen the students and determine the degree of laggardness. This chart shows, for any intelligence quotient, the expected achievement for a student. It is suggested that any student whose achievement T-score is one and one-half standard deviations below his intelligence T-score, or whose achievement is less than .25, is considered a laggard. Thus a student whose expected average is 60 per cent and whose actual average is 35 per cent would be considered a laggard. This chart is used only as an initial screening device. Usually, three D's on a report card is considered cause for classification.

The guidance personnel are entrusted with preparation of laggard lists for the various schools. They attempt to discover the problems of the student and to help the student resolve these problems. The list which the counsellor prepares is submitted to the principal. Following conferences between principal and counsellor, a letter is sent to the parents informing them of their child's academic probation, and encouraging parents to cooperate with the school. In January, the principal, in conference with the staff, decides on students to be excluded.

The number of students asked to withdraw by application of the policy is indicated in Table I. The number of students excluded in each year has always been less than 1 per cent of the total school population.

TABLE I

INCIDENCE OF EXCLUSIONS UNDER PROVISIONS OF THE CALGARY LAGGARD POLICY 1955-1959 INCLUSIVE

Year	Exclusions	Enrolment	% Excluded
1955	11	3,271	.34
1956	22	3,400	.65
1957	30	3,777	.80
1958	36	4,259	.85
1959	35	4,696	.75

Selection of the Students for Study

Institutions

Western Canada and Crescent Heights, large composite high schools servicing more than half of Calgary's population, were selected for this study. The other high schools possess certain disadvantages: Central is a small, academic school; Viscount Bennett, Queen Elizabeth, and William Aberhart are new to the system.

The Laggard Student Sample

Administrators classify as laggards, students who are having academic difficulty. Any student showing an underachievement of over fifteen points on the T-score, or an achievement less than .25, may be considered a laggard. In 1958-59, the two schools under study classified approximately seventy per cent of the city's total laggard population. Only those in Grades X and XI during 1957-58 and 1958-59 were selected.

The Control Sample

The control sample varies somewhat in certain parts of the study. Some pertinent data are available for the population of all Calgary high school students, but in some instances representative control samples were selected from this population.

Achievement scores were used to test more than one hypothesis. For each credit hour of H, the student received five points; of A, four points; of B, three points; of C, two points; of D, one point. The linear honor point system is meaningful and easy to calculate.

Improvement of Laggards

The achievement scores of students classified as laggards were compared to the achievement scores of the non-laggard student population to determine the effect of warning letters on the improvement of laggards. A sample of the laggard population classified in November of 1957 and 1958, and restricted to Grades X and XI, was selected. Laggards who dropped out of school before the final report were not included. Using the above restrictions, a sample

of the non-laggard population was also selected. No effort was made to match the two samples according to age, sex, intelligence, or socio-economic status, but the groups were matched according to numbers, grades, schools, and years.

TABLE II
SAMPLE SIZES OF LAGGARDS AND NON-LAGGARDS

Sample	School A	School B	Totals
Laggards	198	172	370
Non-laggards	198	172	370

Laggard students were identified by low marks. Thus it was impossible to equate the laggard group and the control group on the November report. Through the statistical technique of analysis of covariance, it is possible to allow for these differences in the initial report by making adjustments to the subsequent report, and so compare the regression of final scores on initial scores for both samples.

Mean achievement scores for the laggard and non-laggard groups on initial and subsequent reports are shown in Table III.

TABLE III
MEAN ACHIEVEMENT SCORES FOR LAGGARDS AND
NON-LAGGARDS ON THE INITIAL AND
SUBSEQUENT REPORTS

Group	N	Initial	January	Final
		M	M	M
Laggard	370	17.99	18.99	18.08
Non-laggard	370	26.49	25.65	25.50
Lag		8.50	6.66	7.42

Laggards close the gap only slightly and never do become equal to non-laggards, but these calculations do show that laggards improve.

From Table IV it appears that laggards improve significantly in comparison to non-laggards from the initial to January report, and also from the initial to final report.

The January means differed significantly after they were adjusted for initial differences. Classification as a laggard stimulated significant improvement in the January score.

The laggard and non-laggard final scores differ significantly after they have been adjusted for initial differences. Classification as a laggard produced improvement in achievement but laggards never do equal non-laggards.

TABLE IV
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN
IMPROVEMENT SCORES FOR LAGGARDS AND
NON LAGGARDS

INITIAL TO JANUARY					
	Mean Improvement	S.D.	S.E.	C.R.	t. 0.1
Laggard	1.00	2.98	.23	8	2.58
Non-laggard	-.84	3.22			
INITIAL TO FINAL					
	Mean Improvement	S.D.	S.E.	C.R.	t. 0.1
Laggard	.09	3.09	.23	4.7	2.58
Non-laggard	-.99	3.23			

TABLE V
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF JANUARY AND INITIAL
ACHIEVEMENT SCORES FOR LAGGARDS AND
NON-LAGGARDS

Source	df	SS y.x	Vest	Fy.x	F .01
Between means	1	234	234	19.8	6.66
Within groups	737	8,686	11.8		
Total	738	8,920			

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE AMONG ADJUSTED JANUARY MEANS

Source	Adjusted Means	SE D y.x	t. 01	D. 01	D X.M
Langards	22.90				
Non-laggards	21.74	.25	2.59	.65	1.16
General	22.24				

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF FINAL AND INITIAL ACHIEVEMENT
SCORES FOR LAGGARDS AND NON-LAGGARDS

Source	df	SS y.x	Vest	Fy.x	F .05
Between means	1	48	48	4.10	3.85
Within groups	737	8,607	11.7		
Total	738	8,655			

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE AMONG ADJUSTED FINAL MEANS

Source	Adjusted Means	SE D y.x	t .05	D. 05	D YM
Laggards	21.97	.23	1.96	.45	.46
Non-laggards	21.51				

Improvement of Laggards by Sex and by Grade

The 2 × 2 factorial design enables a quick determination of each of the factors, sex and grade, as well as an investigation of any interaction of sex and grade. Calculations are illustrated by Walker and Lev.

The numbers in each subgroup have been equalized by random selection from the total laggard sample.

Table VI compares the improvements of each group from initial to January report and presents an analysis of variance of these improvement scores.

TABLE VI
A COMPARISON OF IMPROVEMENT SCORES FOR
FEMALE, MALE, GRADE X AND GRADE XI LAGGARD
STUDENTS (INITIAL TO JANUARY REPORT)

Source		Grade X		Grade XI		Total
		N	Mark	N	Mark	
Male	Total Improvement }	50	32	50	12	44
	Mean Improvement }		.64		.24	.44
Female	Total Improvement }	50	-29	50	16	-13
	Mean Improvement }		-.58		.32	-.13
Total	Total Improvement }	100	3	100	28	31
	Mean Improvement }		.03		.28	.15

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF IMPROVEMENT SCORES (INITIAL TO JANUARY) OF FEMALE AND MALE LAGGARDS, AND GRADE X AND XI LAGGARDS

Source	df	SS	MS	F	F .05	F .01
Sex	1	16.19	16.19	1.35	3.89	6.76
Grade	1	3.07	3.07	.25	3.89	6.76
Interaction	1	24.10	24.10	2.00	3.89	6.76
Individuals						
within Subclasses	196	2,341	12			

There is no sex difference; female laggards do not improve more than male laggards. There is no grade difference; Grade XI laggards do not improve more than Grade X laggards. There is no interaction between sex and grade.

Description of Laggards

Sex

Male students are classified as laggards more often than female students.

Age

Grade X laggards are older than other Grade X students; the mode in this grade is 16 for laggards and 15 for all students; and

while the difference in Grade XI is not as pronounced, laggards are older than all students.

Intellectual Ability

The difference in intellectual ability between laggards and all students is clearly insignificant; the mean for laggards is 107.1 and for all students 108. (The intelligence quotient used was determined by the Otis intelligence test.)

Program of Studies

In analysis, difficulty was encountered in segregating Grade X general and academic students. In Grade X no significant difference appears in the classification of laggards. A significant difference is present in Grade XI; fewer academic students and a larger number of general and technical students are classified as laggards.

Grade

The number of Grade XI laggards is significantly greater than the number of Grade X laggards. It is possible that the Grade X's may be treated deferentially on their first high school report.

Drop-out Rate

Laggards drop out of school in significantly larger numbers than the general student. Since they do not adapt well they are potential drop-outs.

Summary of Findings

Administrators of Calgary high schools are well satisfied that the laggard policy does rehabilitate many laggard students. Public response has been favorable, and the policy has become accepted as normal procedure. The policy also seems to be fulfilling its intended purposes. It has increased school morale, increased job satisfaction of teachers, and decreased distraction by resistant students.

In comparison with non-laggards, the achievement of laggards improved significantly from the initial to the January report. While there was improvement from the initial to the final report, it was not as significant as that from the initial to the January report.

The achievement of laggards did not improve to the point of equalling that of non-laggards in the period under study.

This analysis showed many interesting features not directly concerned with the main problem:

1. Grade XI laggards did not improve their achievement more than did Grade X laggards.
2. Female laggards did not improve their achievement more than did male laggards.

3. Male students were classified as laggards more frequently than were female students.

4. Laggard students were older than the Calgary high school population, especially in Grade X.

5. Laggard students did not differ from the Calgary high school population in intelligence.

6. A smaller proportion of academic students and a larger proportion of general and technical students were classified as laggards.

7. A smaller proportion of Grade X than Grade XI students were classified as laggards.

8. The ratio of laggards to non-laggards varied from school to school.

9. The drop-out rate of laggards was greater than the drop-out rate for the Calgary high school population.

Implications for Research

While this study is limited in scope, the implications of the findings merit consideration. There is strong evidence that laggards do improve their achievement but rehabilitation is only partial.

Related literature suggests that lack of study habits characterizes the laggard student. Planned systematic teaching of study skills in the lower grades followed by a remedial study program in high school appear to be indicated.

The use of the "3 D" system does not reach all laggards, and many true laggards receive no help. Research into methods of classification and rehabilitation is required.

What is the post-school history of excluded students?

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BOOK REVIEWS

Pupil Personnel in Alberta Secondary Schools. Monographs in Education, No. 6. By D. B. Black, R. S. MacArthur and J. G. Patterson. Edmonton, Faculty of Education, 1961. 44 pp. \$2.00.

This monograph includes two studies condensed from reports prepared for the Royal Commission on Education in Alberta in 1958-59. The first, by MacArthur and Patterson, is a review of studies of pupil retention and drop-out in Alberta secondary schools to 1958 and studies relating to the prediction of success in school examinations. The second, by Black, is a new study of drop-outs, using a method more refined than those used in earlier Alberta studies.

In their report MacArthur and Patterson offer this note on methodology:

"One method of determining the number and percentage of drop-outs is to compare the total enrolment in selected higher grades in appropriate later years, with the total enrolment in Grade I for any selected base-year. Thus, the total Grade IX enrolment for June, 1954, may be compared with the total Grade I enrolment for June, 1946. This method does not allow for the effects of immigration, emigration, or death. If it is assumed that the effects of immigration are approximately counterbalanced by the combined effects of emigration and deaths, and that the rates of retardation and acceleration for a particular grade are constant over a period of years, this method can give a reasonably accurate picture of the retention and drop-out rate of pupils.

This is careful and honest reporting, but what assumptions! At least some of them need to be tested, and fact substituted for supposition. Black accepted this challenge and, by conducting a longitudinal study following the Grade IX class of 1955 through the next three years, obtained different and obviously more accurate results.

But he too stopped short. He treated as drop-outs all pupils who withdrew from Alberta public secondary schools during the three years covered by his study. In his words:

"It may well be that some of those reported as dropping out did continue with their schooling outside the province, or chose to enter trades with specialized training programs, for example, apprenticeship training."

Had he had the time, I think he might have discovered from the other nine provinces how many pupils transferred to their schools from Alberta at the grade levels in which he was interested. He might then have made the lesser assumption that their subsequent careers were similar to the careers of those who remained in Alberta.

All studies reported, including Black's, share the fault that no account is taken of the admission of Alberta high school graduates to university institutions other than the University of Alberta.

In spite of methodological limitations, these reports show forcefully that a disturbingly high proportion of able youngsters drop out of high school before reaching the levels of which they are capable.

The evidence is "that overageness, male sex, low achievement, low mental ability, and low socio-economic level are the major factors positively associated with drop-out from Alberta schools".

This kind of review of research is a valuable service and I like Black's concluding summary and plea:

"A characteristic of most dropout studies is that they are descriptive. Data relating to the number of dropouts have been reported on a wide variety of levels ranging from the national scene to the local school. Invariably, the magnitude of the number of students leaving school is startling. It would seem that the greatest need is not for continued descriptive studies but rather the establishment of experimental programs aimed at reducing student dropouts."

Edward F. Sheffield,
Research Officer,
Canadian University Foundation

Rural Alberta: Patterns of Change. Monographs in Education, No. 5. By Harold J. Uhlman. Edmonton, Faculty of Education, 1961. \$2.00.

In this monograph the author has taken a close look at the hazards facing rural education by studying basic changes taking place in the population and economy of the Province. The presentation is straightforward and readable; the charts and graphs summarize the facts skilfully. The main conclusion is clear—rural education faces plenty of problems.

People in Alberta are on the move, from the north to the south, and from the rural areas to the big cities. At the same time the kinds of jobs, including those on the farms, are changing too. Farms are becoming larger and fewer in number, and proportionately fewer of them are farmed by owners. More farmers are living away from their farms in nearby larger communities. Each of these changes poses problems for the rural school.

Education is becoming more expensive. The cost of new buildings and of replacements has soared. Salaries and other operating costs have risen. New kinds of courses require new kinds of specialists. The numbers of children are increasing more rapidly than the population in general. More and more of them are conveyed to school and back. Even with added help from the provincial treasury the financing of education becomes more difficult.

Although their salaries have risen there is a shortage of well-trained teachers. The need for new kinds of specialists outpaces the supply of such. And like professionals in other fields, teachers are fleeing the rural areas for the attractions of the big cities.

The author provides a detailed account of these changes in rural Alberta, and offers no easy solutions to the problems raised. However, the problems are not unique. All across this country populations are moving. The changes in the job world are raising desperate challenges for educational institutions at all levels. Because Canada has depended on migrants to do many of the skilled and professional tasks we find ourselves with a meagre system for educating and training our young people. Thus in this decade we face an avalanche of new students with inadequate school plants and insufficient trained teachers.

This report adds some new fuel to the growing sense of urgency about education in Canada. At almost all levels of education, both inside and outside our educational institutions, there is dissatisfaction with the results of our present efforts. This volume leaves one with the feeling that education is not merely in need of improvement—it needs to be lifted to totally new levels.

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